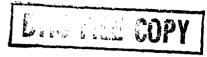
AD-A233 357

Toxicon Vol. 29, No. 2, pp. 227-236, 1991. Printed in Great Britain.





Pergamon Press pic



CHARACTERIZATION AND AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF TWO LETHAL PEPTIDES ISOLATED FROM VENOM OF WAGLER'S PIT VIPER, TRIMERESURUS WAGLERI

SCOTT A. WEINSTEIN, JAMES J. SCHMIDT, ALAN W. BERNHEIMER and LEONARD A. SMITH *

Department of Toxinology, Pathology Division, United States Army Medical Research Institute of Infectious Diseases, Frederick, MD 21701-5011, U.S.A., and Department of Microbiology, New York University School of Medicine, 550 First Avenue, New York, NY 10016, U.S.A.

(Received 5 June, 1990; Accepted 19 July 1990)

S. A. WEINSTEIN, J. J. SCHMIDT, A. W. BERNHEIMER and L. A. SMITH. Characterization and amino acid sequences of two lethal peptides isolated from venom of Wagler's pit viper, Trimeresurus wagleri. Toxicon 29, 227-236, 1991.—Two lethal toxins were isolated from Trimeresurus wagleri venom by fast protein liquid chromatography (molecular sieve) and high performance liquid chromatography (reverse phase). The toxins (termed peptide I and II) had mol. wt of 2504 and 2530, respectively, pls of 9.6-9.9 and lacked phospholipase A, proteolytic, and hemolytic activity. Lethal peptide I had a murine i.p. LD₅₀ of 0.369 mg/kg, while lethal II had a murine i.p. LD₅₀ of 0.583 mg/kg. Peptide I retained full toxicity after autoclaving at 121°C for 40 min. The lethal activity was found to represent less than 1% of the total venom protein, which was only 62-65% of crude venom. The amino acid sequence of peptide I revealed a proline-rich (over 30% of total sequence) sequence unique among snake venom toxins. Lethal peptide II showed the same sequence except for a second tyrosine in the position of histidine (residue No. 10) in peptide I. The toxin lacked antigenic identity with a number of representative neurotoxins and myotoxins. The crude venom shared at least one antigen with Crotalus scutulatus scutulatus venom. This antigen was not Mojave toxin. The toxin appears symptomologically suggestive of a vasoactive peptide or neurotoxin.

INTRODUCTION

WAGLER'S pit viper Trimeresurus (= Tropidolaemus, Brattstrom, 1964) wagleri (Leviton, 1964) is a small to medium-sized (65-70 cm average) arboreal crotaline which ranges throughout Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand and the Indo-Australian archipelago to Indonesia. T. wagleri secretes one of the more toxic Trimeresurus venoms. A neurological site of action for T. wagleri venom was proposed by Smith and Hindle (1931). Minton (1968) described a component of T. wagleri venom which was dialyzable (smaller than 1000 mol. wt), and remarkably thermostable. Tan and Tan (1989) used

^{*}To whom reprints should be requested.

Sephadex G-50 gel filtration and SP-Sephadex C-25 ion exchange to obtain two non-enzymatic toxins. Gel filtration indicated an M_r of 8900. These workers found that crude T. wagleri venom did not affect nerve-evoked twitch tension or acetylcholine reduced response of chick biventer muscle, thus suggesting that T. wagleri venom toxins were not neurotoxins. The present study describes purification, characterization and amino acid sequences of two lethal toxins from the venom of T. wagleri.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

Trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), "sequenal grade", was purchased from Pierce Chemical Company, Rockford, IL. Acetonitrile and water ("HPLC grade") were from Thomas Scientific, Swedesboro, NJ, while 4-vinylpyridine was from Sigma Chemical Co., St Louis, MO.

Venoms and purified toxins

Trimeresurus wagleri venom was obtained from Ventoxin Laboratories (Frederick, MD), Naja naja kaouthia venom from Biotoxins, Inc. (St Cloud, FL), and Oxyuranus scutellatus scutellatus venom from Venom Supplies (Tanunda, South Australia). The T. wagleri venom was collected as a pool from three young adult specimens (all females). Individual samples were collected from each specimen and examined separately in order to establish lack of venom protein variation among these snakes. Androctonus australis venom was purchased from Latoxan (Rosans, France).

Crotamine (lot 17) was purchased from Miami Serpentarium Laboratories, Salt Lake City, UT. α-Cobratoxin was purified from venom of Naja naja kaouthia by using Sulphopropyl (SP)-Sephadex chromatography (CHATMAN and DIMARI, 1974). Taipoxin was purified from venom of Oxyuranus s. scutellatus by gel filtration (FOHLMAN et al., 1976). Mojave toxin was purified from venom of Crotatus scutulatus (a single adult male from Yuma, AZ) according to the method of WEINSTEIN et al. (1985). Toxin II from Androctonus australis venom (AaH II) was purified by successive fractionation on Mono Q, Mono S and Superose-12 column chromatography (Pharmacia, Piscataway, NJ). Purity and identity of crotamine, α-cobratoxin, taipoxin and AaH II were determined by reverse-phase chromatography and amino acid sequence analysis.

Antibodies

Antisera against purified toxins were raised in New Zealand white rabbits using an administration schedule essentially as described by KAISER et al., (1986) with the exception that different toxin dosages were used in the immunization protocol. Crotamine was administered at $10 \mu g/kg$ rabbit, α -cobratoxin and AaH II were administered at $6 \mu g/kg$ rabbit, and taipoxin was used at $2 \mu g/kg$ rabbit. When antibody titers were detected, doses were increased by 25%. IgG was purified from serum using DEAE-Affi-Gel Blue (Bio-Rad, Richmond, CA). Polyclonal antibody against crude C. scutulatus scutulatus venom (Type A) and purified Mojave toxin was prepared following the immunization schedule of Weinstein et al. (1985).

Lethality determinations

The i.p. LD₅₀ of the crude venom was obtained by injection of male Swiss-Webster mice (18-20 g) in five groups of four mice per group. All injections were administered in the lower quadrants of the abdomen. Dosage was derived from a 1 mg/ml solution of venom in phosphate buffered saline (0.05 M, pH 7.2). Animals were observed after injection and mortality recorded after 24 hr. The LD₅₀ of lethal fractions from Superose-12 (molecular sieve) chromatography was determined by injecting male Swiss-Webster mice (18-20 g) in five groups which contained four mice per group, while the lethal potency of HPLC fractions was determined using five groups which consisted of four mice per group. Toxin diluent was Tris-HCl (0.05 M, pH 7.2) containing 0.7 M NaCl. In the first two dose levels involving venom fractions, equivalent volumes of buffer were injected into control groups of two mice per group. Animals succumbing to either crude venom or venom fraction dosages were necropsied and any gross tissue pathology examined and noted. The LD₅₀ was calculated by the Spearman-Karber method (WHO, 1981). The 95% fiducial limits for the LD₅₀ were determined.

Determination of protein concentration

Protein concentrations were estimated from the molar extinction coefficients of the two purified peptides. The bicinchoninic acid assay (BCA assay, Pierce Chemicals) (SMITH et al., 1985) was used only as a comparative method to determine the accuracy with these peptides of standard protein assay methods.

Venom fractionation

Venom samples were prepared for chromatographic analysis by dissolving 18-28 mg in 1 ml of 0.05 M Tris HCI, pH 7.2 containing 0.7 M NaCl. Aliquots of $500 \,\mu$ l were centrifuged at $100,000 \times g$ in an Eppendorf 5415 benchtop centrifuge (Eppendorf Laboratories), and the supernatants were chromatographed on a $1.0 \times 30 \, cm$ Superose-12 column (Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology, Piscataway, NJ). Fractions which exhibited lethality in mice were acidified with TFA and subjected to reverse phase chromatography (Waters Associates, Milford, MA) using a Hi-Pore RP-318 column (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Richmond, CA). Fractions obtained from reverse phase chromatography were neutralized with N-ethylmorpholine (1.0-1.5 μ /ml of fraction) and most of the acetonitrile was removed by evaporation with a stream of dry nitrogen at room temperature. Fractions were then screened in mice for lethality. Control animals were injected with neutralized TFA only.

Sequence analyses

Prior to sequencing, samples were reduced and pyridylethylated as described previously (CAVINS and FRIEDMAN, 1970; SCHMIDT and MIDDLEBROOK, 1989). Automated Edman degradation was then done in a model 470A amino acid sequencer from Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA. Residues were identified with an on-line high pressure liquid chromatograph (model 120A, from the same manufacturer).

Amino acid compositions

Samples were dried in heavy-wall ignition tubes, then redissolved in 0.70 ml 6N HCl/0.002 M phenol. Tubes were sealed under vacuum and placed in a heating block at 110°C for 30 hr. The amino acid compositions of the hydrolysates were determined with a Beckman System 7300 amino acid analyzer (Beckman Instruments, Palo Alto, CA).

Isoelectric focusing (IEF)

IEF was performed in a 110 ml electrofocusing column (LKB Instruments). The gradient was prepared from a less dense solution consisting of 51 ml of water, 4 ml of 8% (w/v) ampholine (pH 3-10) and a more dense solution consisting of undialyzed sample, 8.5 ml of 8% (w/v) ampholine (pH 3-10) and 25 g of sucrose in a final volume of 55 ml. Focusing was carried out at 4°C for 24 hr with a final potential of 1000 V. Fraction volume was 4 ml

Determination of proteolytic activity

Presence of proteolytic activity was determined by use of a casein agarose gel substrate (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Venom solutions from 0.125 mg/ml to 1 mg/ml were added to wells punched in the gel plate, and zones of clearing were measured after 20 hr at 25°C. A 1 mg/ml trypsin solution similarly prepared was used as a standard. PBS (0.05 M, pH 7.2) was used as diluent for venom and typsin solutions. A well filled with PBS served as a negative control.

Elisa

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) were carried out essentially as described by Henderson and Bieber (1986). Peroxidase-conjugated, goat anti-rabbit IgG (Sigma) served as secondary antibody when the primary antibody used was rabbit polyclonal. When the primary antibodies were monoclonal, peroxidase-conjugated, rabbit anti-mouse IgK (Kirkegaard and Perry Labs, Gaithersburg, MD) was used as the secondary antibody.

Phospholipase A and hemolytic assays

Qualitative analysis for phospholipase A (PLA) activity was performed following the protocol of MARINETTI (1965). Hemolytic activity was assayed by using rat erythrocytes according to the method of Bernheimer et al. (1976).

RESULTS

Trimeresurus wagleri crude venom lethal potency, proteolytic and hemolytic activity

Crude venom of *T. wagleri* possessed moderate proteolytic activity (35 units of trypsin activity per mg venom). Crude venom protein content was 62-65%. The murine i.p. LD₅₀ of crude venom pooled from three snakes was 4.36 mg/kg. Mice succumbing to the effects of crude venom showed a sudden onset of tachypnea, tremors and myoclonus which led to

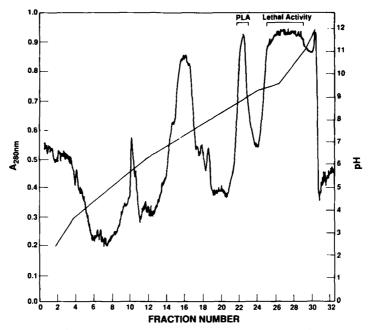


FIG. 1. ISOELECTRIC FOCUSING OF CRUDE VENOM OF *T. wagleri*. Isoelectric focusing was performed in a 110 ml electrofocusing column. The gradient was prepared from a less dense solution consisting of 51 ml of water, 4 ml of 8% (w/v) ampholine (pH 3-10) and a more dense solution consisting of undialyzed sample, 8.5 ml of 8% (w/v) ampholine (pH 3-10) and 25 g of sucrose in a final volume of 55 ml. Focusing was carried out at 4°C for 24 hr with a final potential of 1000 V. Fraction volume was 4 ml.

rapid prostration and cardiorespiratory death. Exophthalmus was observed in all animals succumbing to lethal venom doses. Gross necropsy indicated some pulmonary congestion with no other apparent gross effects. The crude venom in concentrations up to 500 μ g per ml lacked direct hemolytic activity.

Isoelectric focusing of T. wagleri venom

Isoelectric focusing of crude T. wagleri venom resulted in four major peaks (Fig. 1). Strong PLA activity was detected in fraction 24 (pI = 8.9) while weak activity was found in fraction 21 (pI = 7.6). Lethal activity was detected in fractions 26-30 (pI = 9.6-9.9).

Fractionation of crude venom

Chromatographic analysis attempted with cation and anion exchange or hydrophobic resin was unsuccessful in isolating the material responsible for lethal activity which consistently appeared as an unbound peak in the void volume. Figure 2 shows the profile obtained from Superose-12 (molecular sieve) analysis of *T. wagleri* venom. Approximately nine peaks were observed. Lethal activity was detected only in peak D (fractions 19-20). The lethal potency of peak D was 0.9 mg/kg, indicating a five-fold increase in specific activity. Necropsy of mice succumbing to the lethal pool revealed no difference from those which succumbed to the crude venom. The lethal pool contained low levels of proteolytic activity (17 units of trypsin activity per mg peak D protein).

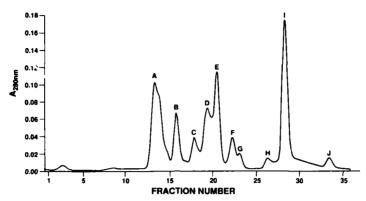


FIG. 2. MOLECULAR SIEVE CHROMATOGRAPHY OF CRUDE T. wagleri VENOM.

Molecular sieve chromatography was performed at room temperature by using a Superose 12 HR10/30 column. Elution was carried out with Tris HCl 0.05 M, pH 7.2, containing 0.7 M NaCl. A flow rate of 0.5 ml/min was maintained and fractions of 1.0 ml were collected. All fractions were monitored for absorbance at 280 nm and lethal activity.

Antigenic identity of Superose 12 lethal pool components

Immunological survey by indirect ELISA of both crude *T. wagleri* and Superose-12 peak D indicated a lack of antigenic identity between *T. wagleri* venom toxins and α-cobratoxin from *Naja n. kaouthia*, taipoxin from *Oxyuranus scutellatus*, crotoxin and crotamine from *C. durrissus terrificus*, and Mojave toxin from *C. scutulatus scutulatus*. A moderate reaction of identity was noted with polyclonal antibody against crude "type A" *Crotalus scutulatus scutulatus* venom. ELISA detection of extensive sharing of antigens among crotaline venoms has been noted by MINTON *et al.* (1984). Ouchterlony double immunodiffusion of peak D resulted in data identical to those obtained with ELISA. Reaction of the lethal pool with anti-*Crotalus scutulatus scutulatus* crude venom antiserum resulted in single precipitin band. Reaction of the lethal pool with anti-Mojave toxin antiserum was negative.

Phospholipase A activity of Superose-12 peak D

A qualitative assay for phospholipase A activity (MARINETTI, 1965) detected weak PLA activity in the Superose 12 lethal pool.

Reverse phase chromatography

Fractions 19 and 20 (superose-12 peak D) were individually purified further on a Bio-Rad C18 column, and the results are shown in Fig. 3. In both cases, toxicity was found only in peaks I and II. Moreover, peak I from fraction 19 (Fig. 3A) contained the same compound peak I from fraction 20 (Fig. 3B). The same was observed for peak II. Consequently, appropriate material from each reverse phase run was pooled for further study. Since peaks I and II were subsequently found to contain only one peptide each (see below), these are hereafter referred to as peptides I and II.

Multiple reverse phase runs were necessary to acquire sufficient purified material for subsequent experiments. Sample loads of at least 0.35 mg protein could be successfully chromatographed on the 0.46 cm diameter column. In some cases, a Bio-Rad $1.0 \times 25 \text{ cm}$ reverse phase column was used, which could fractionate up to 1 mg protein per injection. In a typical preparation, about 0.28 mg peptide I and 0.44 mg peptide II were purified

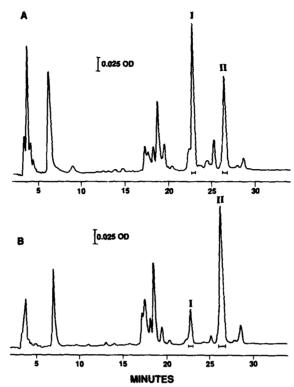


Fig. 3. Reverse phase chromatography of superose-12 peak D, fraction 19 (panel A) and fraction 20 (panel B).

The column was a Bio-Rad Hi-Pore RP-318, 0.46 × 25 cm. Solvent A was 0.06% TFA and solvent B was 0.05% TFA/70% acetonitrile. Flow rate was 1.0 ml/min and the temperature was 30°C. The column was equilibrated with 12% B. After injection of sample, the solvent was held at this concentration for 3 min, followed by a linear gradient to 33% B at 30 min. The column was then eluted with 100% B for 7 min. Optical density (OD) of the column effluent was monitored at 210 nm. Portions of the eluents constituting peaks (peptides) I and II are indicated by solid bars.

from 18–20 mg crude venom. Peptide I had a murine i.p. LD_{50} of 0.369 mg/kg, while peptide II had a murine i.p. LD_{50} of 0.583 mg/kg. Both peptides elicited tachypnea, ocular proctosis, rapid collapse and spasms in mice.

Thermostability of peptide I

Lethal peptide I was markedly thermostable. The toxin retained 100% lethal potency after autoclaving at 121°C for 40 min. The onset and characteristics of symptoms were identical to unheated toxin.

Amino acid sequencing of peptides I and II

The primary structures of peptides I and II are shown in Fig. 4. In both cases, interpretable data abruptly ceased with residue 22, suggesting that complete sequences had been obtained. Further, inspections of the chromatograms showing the phenylthiohydantoin (PTH) derivatives obtained from each cycle of Edman degradation (data not shown) revealed the presence of only trace amounts of extraneous residues, suggesting

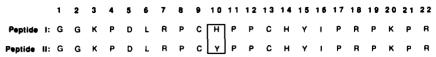


FIG. 4. AMINO ACID SEQUENCES OF PEPTIDES I AND II.

high purity. The molecular weight of peptide I, based on sequence data, was 2504, while that of peptide II was 2530.

In both structures, residues 9 and 13 were identified as the PTH derivatives of $S-\beta$ -(4-pyridylethyl)-cysteine. Tests of the native toxins with Ellman's reagent (ELLMAN, 1959) indicated the absence of sulfhydryl groups. This result suggests that the toxins contain one intramolecular disulfide bond per mole, but the possibility of intermolecular disulfide bonds has not been eliminated.

Amino acid compositions

The relative amounts and ratios of amino acids in peptides I and II are summarized in Table 1. Residues per mole of each amino acid are in complete agreement with that calculated from the sequences, with the exception of S- β -(4-pyridylethyl)-cysteine, which could not be quantitated because it was not eluted from the analyzer column. In addition, only those amino acids identified in the sequences were found in the hydrolysates. Thus it is extremely unlikely that an additional peptide was present and remained undetected in sequencing experiments due to a blocked N-terminus. No unusual peaks or amino sugars were observed on the amino acid analyzer chromatograms.

Extinction coefficients of peptides I and II

Absorbance spectra of peptides I and II (data not shown) demonstrated that each peptide had a maximum in the near ultraviolet, centered about 276 nm, with a shoulder at 282 nm. This indicated the presence of tyrosine and the absence of tryptophan (EDELHOCH, 1967), which is in agreement with sequencing data. Moreover, the ratio of absorbance at 276 nm to that at 260 nm (1.80) shows that no nucleotides are present. Therefore the molar extinction coefficient of peptide I at 276 nm was calculated as the sum of the contribution from tyrosine, 1280, plus that of the disulfide bond, 150, for a total of 1430. The result for peptide II, with two tyrosines and one disulfide per mole, was 2710.

IABLE	I. AMINO	ACID	ANALYSES	OF	PEPTIDES	IAND	П

	Pepti	de I	Peptide II		
	Residues per	Nearest	Residues per	Nearest	
Residue	mole	Integer	_mole	Integer	
D	1.18	1	1.03	1	
Р	6.77	7	6.58	7	
G	2.12	2	1.73	2	
С	n. d.*	n. d.*	n. d.*	n. d.*	
1	1.00	1	0.92	1	
L	1.12	1	1.00	1	
Y	0.92	1	1.86	2	
K	2.03	2	1.76	2	
н	2.03	2	0.89	1	
R	3.29	3	2.91	_ 3	

^{*} n. d. : not determined

These molar extinction coefficients were used to determine concentrations of solutions containing purified peptides I and II, since the BCA protein assay gave erroneously low results.

Structural comparisons

A search of the Swiss-Prot (University of Geneva, Switzerland) and Protein Identification Resource (National Biomedical Research Foundation) protein sequence databases, using computer programs from Intelligenetics Corp., Mountain View, CA, found no significant homologies with the sequences of peptides I or II. Considered with the results of the immunological survey, described previously, these data indicate that the structures of peptides I and II are unlike any heretofore reported.

DISCUSSION

SMITH and HINDLE (1931) described T. wagleri venom as neurotoxic. MINTON (1968) described a lack of rear limb paresis in mice injected with T. wagleri venom. TAN and TAN (1989) found that T. wagleri venom did not have a curaremimetic effect upon chick biventer cervicis nerve—muscle preparations. These workers also noted a lack of hemorrhagic and necrotizing activity.

The toxins isolated in the present study elicited tachypnea, exophthalmus, and myoclonus which led to rapid collapse in mice. The crude venom exhibited identical symptomology. Necropsy of animals succumbing after 12-20 hr to venom or toxin injections indicated a lack of gross hemorrhage or myonecrosis. The two isolated toxins were 22residue peptides which had M, of 2504 and 2530, respectively, pIs of 9.6-9.9, and both lacked phospholipase, proteolytic and hemolytic activity. The primary structures of both were determined by direct sequencing, which were corroborated by amino acid composition analyses and u.v. spectra. The sequences of peptides I and II were identical, with the exception of residue 10 (histidine in peptide I, tyrosine in peptide II). Peptides I and II had unusual compositions in that 7 of 22 residues were prolines. No sulfhydryl groups were found and the peptides probably contain one intramolecular disulfide bond per mole. Due to the agreement between the amino acid composition and direct sequence data, the presence of blocked polypeptides and/or carbohydrates is unlikely. The elution positions of the peptides from the size exclusion column suggest mol. wts of approximately 40,000. This apparently anomalous behavior is unexplained, but could result from aggregation or from non-covalent binding to other molecules. In contrast, elution of the toxins from the reverse phase column occurs at low acetonitrile concentrations, a characteristic of relatively low molecular weight peptides. However, we cannot yet rule out the possibility that the active principals are multimers formed by intermolecular disulfide bonds.

Tan and Tan (1989) reported the isolation of two toxins having M_r of 8900 and i.v. lethal potencies of 0.170 mg/kg and 0.190 mg/kg, respectively. The lethal potency of peptide II (0.583 mg/kg) in the present study had 62% of the toxicity of peptide I (0.369 mg/kg). These lethal potencies were determined using doses of toxin calculated by the molar extinction coefficient of each respective peptide. When protein concentrations were determined by BCA or Lowry, lethal potencies similar to those reported by Tan and Tan (1989) were obtained. Since only two toxins were present in the venom, we therefore conclude that peptides I and II correspond to the toxins isolated by Tan and Tan (1989).

The toxin caused symptomology suggestive of a hypotensive peptide or a neurotoxin. Hypotensive peptides such as those isolated from C. viridis helleri (Dubnoff and Russell, 1970; Schaeffer et al., 1979) and C. atrox (Bonilla and Rammel, 1976) cause rapid

collapse, shock and respiratory arrest leading to death. In common with the *T. wagleri* toxins, a high proline content is a feature of these peptides, but sequence homology is not apparent. These toxins and several myotoxins (most notably myotoxin a; OWNBY *et al.*, 1976) have basic pls in the range of 9–10 and are low mol. wt proteins (CAMERON and TU, 1977, 1978; OWNBY, 1982). Thus, the presence in snake venoms of low mol. wt, highly basic, proline-rich toxins is not unprecedented.

The unique morphological status among the genus Trimeresurus of T. wagleri was noted by Brattstrom (1964). Minton (1974) commented on the distinct nature of T. wagleri venom compared with that of other Trimeresurus venoms. When compared with other Trimeresurus venom toxins, the lethal toxins of T. wagleri also appear unusual. SUGIHARA et al. (1983) described a lethal hemorrhagic toxin designated "mucrotoxin A" from the venom of T. mucrosquamatus. NIKAI et al. (1985) confirmed the hemorrhagic action of mucrotoxin A and isolated an additional hemorrhagic toxin ("mucrotoxin b"). These hemorrhagins had M, of 15,000 and 27,000, respectively. OMORI-SATOH and SADAHIRO (1979) resolved a lethal hemorrhagin of T. flavoviridis into two 60,000 mol. wt components. Most recently, Sekoguchi et al. (1989) characterized two lethal toxins (designated "TT-1" and "TT-2") from venom of T. tokarensis. Toxin TT-1 had an M, of 71,000, a high content of aspartic acid and glutamic acid, and was hemorrhagic as well as proteolytic. Toxin TT-2 had an M. of 25,400, high content of glutamic acid and serine, and was lethal. TT-2 was proteolytic, but not hemorrhagic. Both toxins were necrotizing and had LD₅₀ values of 6.6 μ g/g and 7.2 μ g/g, respectively. These toxins required divalent cations (Ca²⁺ and Zn²⁺) for activity and were thermolabile. From these data, it is clear that T. wagleri venom toxins can be considered aberrant in their thermostability, lack of hemorrhagic activity, absence of metalloproteolytic lethal components and necrotic activity. The high lethal index of T. wagleri venom toxins appears distinct and could hypothetically be related to an absence of high concentrations of protease, which are significantly higher in other Trimeresurus. Most crotaline venoms with a high lethal index exhibit little, if any, proteolytic activity (GLENN et al., 1983; MINTON and WEINSTEIN, 1984). The pI (9.6-9.9) of T. wagleri lethal toxins is compatible with the non-binding behavior observed upon toxin application to anion exchange and hydrophobic resin.

The amino acid sequences of both purified peptides when compared with a large number of toxin sequences were found to be unique. In addition, the semi-purified toxins lacked antigenic identity with a selection considered fairly representative of ophidian venom neurotoxins and myotoxins derived from elapine elapid and crotaline viperid venoms. Crude T. wagleri venom was found to contain at least one antigen in common with Crotalus scutulatus scutulatus crude venom. This antigen was not Mojave toxin. Weinstein et al. (1985) found no immunoidentity between Mojave toxin and crude venom of T. wagleri. MINTON (1968) found that antiserum against venom of T. flavoviridis failed to neutralize T wagleri venom, even though up to six antigens in T. wagleri venom were shared with T. flavoviridis, T. steijnegeri and T. mucrosquamatus. These data suggest that T. wagleri lethal venom components are antigenically distinctive.

Acknowledgements—Dr Sherman A. Minton provided valuable discussion. The excellent technical assistance of CLEM DEWITT and YOUNG CHOI is gratefully acknowledged.

REFERENCES

Bernheimer, A. W., Avigad, L. S. and Avigad, G. (1975) Interactions between aerolysin, crythrocytes, and erythrocyte membranes. *Infect. Immun.* 11, 1312-1319.

BONILLA, C. A. and RAMMEL, O. J. (1976) Comparative biochemistry and pharmacology of salivary gland secretions. III. Chromatographic isolation of a myocardial depressor protein (MDP) from the venom of Crotalus atrox. J. Chromatogr. 124, 303-314.

Brattstrom, B. H. (1964) Evolution of the pit vipers. Trans. San Diego Soc. Nat. Hist. 13, 185-268.

CAMERON, D. L. and Tu, A. T. (1977) Characterization of myotoxin a from the venom of prairie rattlesnake (Crotalus viridis). Biochemistry 16, 2546-2553.

CAMERON, D. L. and Tu, A. T. (1978) Chemical and functional homology of myotoxin a from prairie rattlesnake venom and crotamine from South American rattlesnake venom. *Biochim biophys. Acta.* 532, 147-154.

CAVINS, J. F. and FRIEDMAN, M. (1970) An internal standard for amino acid analysis: S-β-(4-pyridylethyl)-L-cysteine. *Analyt. Biochem.* 35, 489-493.

CHATMAN, V. B. and DIMARI, S. J. (1974) Use of sulphopropyl-sephadex chromatography and disc gel electrophoresis for the fractionation and identification of elapid venoms. *Toxicon* 12, 405–414.

EDELHOCH, H. (1967) Spectroscopic determination of tryptophan and tyrosine in proteins. *Biochemistry* 6, 1948-1954.

ELLMAN, G. L. (1959) Tissue sulfhydryl groups. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 82, 70-77.

DUBNOFF, J. W. and RUSSELL, F. E. (1970) Isolation of lethal protein and peptide from *Crotalus viridis helleri* venom. *Proc. West Pharm. Soc.* 13, 98.

FOHLMAN, J., EAKER, D., KARLSSON, E. and THESLEFF, S. (1976) Taipoxin, and extremely potent presynaptic neurotoxin from the venom of the Australian snake, Taipan (Oxyuranus scutellatus). Eur. J. Biochem. 68, 457-469.

GLENN, J. L., STRAIGHT, R. C., WOLFE, M. C. and HARDY, D. L. (1983) Geographical variation in *Crotalus scutulatus scutulatus* (Mojave rattlesnake) venom properties. *Toxicon* 21, 119-130.

HENDERSON, J. T. and BIEBER, A. L. (1986) Antigenic relationships between mojave toxin subunits, mojave toxin and some crotalid venoms. *Toxicon* 24, 473–479.

KAISER, I. I., MIDDLEBROOK, J. L., CRUMRINE, M. H. and STEVENSON, W. W. (1986) Cross-reactivity and neutralization by rabbit antisera raised against crotoxin, its subunits and two related toxins. *Toxicon* 24, 669-678.

LEVITON, A. E. (1964) Contributions to a review of Philippine snakes, V. The snakes of the genus *Tremeresurus*. *Philip. J. Sci.*, **93**, 251-276.

MARINETTI, G. V. (1965). The action of phospholipase A on lipoproteins. *Biochim. biophys. Acta* 98, 554-565. MINTON, S. A. (1968) Preliminary observations on the venom of Wagler's pit viper (*Trimeresurus wagleri*). *Toxicon* 6, 93-97.

MINTON, S. A. (1974) Venom Diseases. Thomas (Springfield).

MINTON, S. A. and WEINSTEIN, S. A. (1984) Protease activity and lethal toxicity of venoms from some little known rattlesnakes. *Toxicon* 22, 828-830.

MINTON, S. A., Weinstein, S. A. and Wilde, C. E. (1984) An enzyme-linked immunoassay for detection of North American pit viper venoms. *J. Toxicol. Clin. Toxicol* 22, 303-316.

Nikal, T., Mori, N., Kishida, M., Kato, Y., Takenaka, C., Murakami, T., Shigeyane, S. and Sugihara, H. (1985) Isolation and characterization of hemorrhagic factors a and b from the venom of the Chinese habu snake (*Trimeresurus mucrosquamatus*). Biochim biophys. Acta 838, 121-131.

OMORI-SATOH, T. and SADAHIRO, S. (1979) Resolution of the major hemorrhagic component of *Trimeresurus flavoviridis* venom into two parts. *Biochim. biophys. Acta.* 580, 392-404.

OWNBY, C. L. (1982). Pathology of rattlesnake envenomation. In: Rattlesnake venoms: Their Actions and Treatment, pp. 181-187 (Tu, A. T., Ed). New York: Marcel Dekker.

OWNBY, C. L., CAMERON, D. and Tu, A. T. (1976). Isolation of myotoxic component from rattlesnake (Crotalus viridis) venom. Am. J. Pathol. 85, 149-157.

Schaeffer, R. C., Pattabhiraman, T. R., Carlson, R. W., Russell, F. E. and Weil, M. H. (1979) Cardiovascular failure produced by a peptide from the venom of the southern Pacific rattlesnake, *Crotalus viridis helleri. Toxicon* 17, 447-453.

SCHMIDT, J. J. and MIDDLEBROOK, J. L. (1989) Purification, sequencing and characterization of pseudexin phospholipases A₂ from *Pseudechis porphyriacus* (Australian red-bellied black snake). *Toxicon* 27, 805-818.

SEKOGUCHI, S., NIKAI, T., ITOH, M. and SUGIHARA, H. (1989). Two toxins from the venom of Trimeresurus tokarensis. Int. J. Biochem. 21, 279-289.

SMITH, M. A. and HINDLE, E. (1931) Experiments with the venom of Laticauda, Pseudechis and Trimeresurus species. Trans. Royal Soc. Trop. Med. Hyg. 25, 115-120.

SMITH, P. K., KROHN, R. I., HERMANSON, G. T., MALLIA, A. K., GARTNER, F. H., PROVENZANO, M. D., FUJIMOTO, E. K., GOEKE, N. M., OLSON, B. J. and KLENK, D. C. (1985) Measurement of protein using bicinchoninic acid. *Analyt. Biochem.* 150, 76-85.

Sugihara, H., Moriura, M. and Nikai, T. (1983) Purification and properties of a lethal, hemorrhagic protein, "Mucrotoxin A" from the venom of the Chinese habu snake (*Trimeresurus mucrosquamatus*). *Toxicon* 21, 247-255

Tan, N. H. and Tan, C. S. (1989) The enzymatic activities and lethal toxins of *Trimeresurus wagleri* (speckled pit viper) venom. *Toxicon* 27, 349-357.

WEINSTEIN, S. A., MINTON, S. A. and WILDE, C. E. (1985) The distribution among ophidian venoms of a toxin isolated from venom of the mojave rattlesnake (Crotalus scutulatus scutulatus). Toxicon 23, 825-844.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION (1981) Progress in the characterization of venoms and standardization of antivenoms. WHO Offset Publi. 58, 23-24.

